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THE HIGH SCHOOL JOURNAL

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EDITORIAL COMMENT

WASHINGTON COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE WINS AYCOCK CUP

The North Carolina High School Debating Union staged its sixteenth annual debate at Chapel Hill April 19 and 20. The fifty-two schools that won both debates in the triangular contests met for the first preliminaries on the evening of April 19. Those teams surviving this ordeal entered the second preliminaries, or semi-finals, on the morning of the 20th. The team chosen to uphold the affirmative side of the query in the final debate on the evening of the 20th came from Grace High School of Buncombe County, and the team chosen to defend the negative side of the question came from Washington Collegiate Institute in Beaufort County. Miss Virginia Styles and Mr. Ed Allison were the debaters on the affirmative, and Mr. Henry Roper and Mr. Hal Hopper were the debaters on the negative. The query was, "Resolved: That Congress should enact the McNary-Haugen farm relief bill."

The debate was spirited and of a high order. The arguments on both sides of the question were effectively presented, and at times with rare eloquence. Both teams acquitted themselves with great credit. The decision of the judges was in favor of the negative team by a vote of three to two. The Aycock Memorial Cup was then presented to the representatives of the Washington Collegiate Institute by Mr. Charles E. McIntosh. To Mr. Roper and Mr. Hopper and the Washington Collegiate Institute which they so worthily represented the JOURNAL extends its heartiest felicitations.

HIGH SCHOOL SENIOR EXAMINATIONS

The North Carolina High School senior examinations, sponsored by the North Carolina College Conference, were administered in February to some fourteen thousand pupils. In round numbers about

seven thousand of these will enter college in September. The results of these examinations will be available for the colleges that wish to make use of them, early in the summer. Unfortunately not many of the colleges are now making use of them as they should. The results of these examinations will be available, for the colleges that wish to make a prospective student's general working ability, and the institution that has this information about its freshmen in advance should be in a position to deal somewhat more intelligently with its new students when they arrive. The results of these examinations are not at present used as a basis for accepting or rejecting students for admission to college, but they might well be so used by those institutions that find themselves unable to accept all who apply for admission. The college today that assumes, and acts upon the assumption, that all high school graduates are equally well prepared to pursue with profit a college course, or that these same graduates are equally well prepared for one type of work as another, is doing an injustice both to itself and to the students it accepts into its freshman class. If the higher institutions are to deal intelligently and effectively with their freshmen, they need to get as complete information as possible about each student before he enters and then prepare themselves to deal with him on the basis of all it knows about him. The results of these examinations will certainly be of great help if college administrators will make full use of them.

PROPOSED CHANGES IN CERTIFICATION REQUIREMENTS

The North Carolina State Department of Education is considering some important modifications of the certification requirements for high school teachers which will probably be announced sometime in the summer. The proposed modifications relate to details and not to the general principles governing certification as announced two years ago. The amount of work required for certification in some of the academic branches will probably be reduced somewhat, and some of the detailed specifications previously announced will likely be abandoned. If this is done, as seems to be contemplated, the requirements for certification will be considerably more flexible and consequently less rigid. These changes seem to be both desirable and wise. Whatever changes are finally made will be announced in our October number.

*THE STATUS OF HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS IN NORTH CAROLINA**

By J. ERIS CASSELL
Principal of Gastonia High School

THERE exists in North Carolina an association of the principals of the AA1 high schools of the state. This association meets annually, different schools being the hosts from year to year. In order to do some original work the association made a survey last January among its members as to teachers' salaries, teaching experience, tenureship and teacher turnover, and a report of this survey was submitted to the principals by the writer at the meeting held in High Point in February, 1928.

Since some two or three of the schools concerned did not return the questionaire sent them, the report did not include all the AA1 schools. Then too some of the questionaires were not properly filled out, and for this reason, some of the tables do not balance mathematically. Enough information was gathered, though, to prove interesting, and this is given in this article.

The information was tabulated, and this is given by tables.

TABLE NO. 1

DISTRIBUTION OF ANNUAL SALARIES HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS, PRINCIPALS, ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS, DEANS, HEAD DEPARTMENTS (FOR YEAR 1927-28)

Salary Class	Men	Women
2800 or over	19	1
2700-2799	7	1
2600-2699	2	1
2500-2599	8	4
2400-2499	8	2
2300-2399	1	2
2200-2299	4	2
2100-2199	11	5
2000-2099	9	7
1900-1999	8	6
1800-1899	18	40
1700-1799	15	19
1600-1699	14	71
1500-1599	18	67
1400-1499	14	43
1300-1399	8	68
1200-1299	2	44
1100-1199	2	32
1000-1099		28
900- 999		3
800 or less		
Total	168	446

* Summary of study in the North Carolina AA1 high schools as to salary schedules, teaching experience and tenureship of teachers employed.

From this table it is found that the median salary for men is about $1860 while for women it is about $1500. The median salary for the principals is around $3000. The salaries of the principals are included in this table, and if these are deducted, the median for men teachers would be something over $1800. It is interesting to note that these salaries are better than the median salaries of the teachers and principals for the high schools that are accredited by the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States. A recent survey in this group shows the median salaries as follows: for men teachers, between $1500 and $1800; for women teachers, between $1250 and $1500; for principals, between $2000 and $2500.

When the individual schools are studied, it is found that the median salaries for men varies from $1450 to $2450; for women the range is from $1250 to $1800. Only one school shows that it is maintaining the single salary schedule. There is one other school that approximates it. The size, location, population type of cities and school systems do not seem to affect the salary schedule. A certain good size industrial city, for instance, has one of the lowest salary schedules, while another city in an agricultural section has a strong schedule.

From this table, too, the percentage of men teachers is computed and found to be 27% for all the schools. In the individual schools the percentage runs from 7% in case of one of the largest schools to 55% for one of the smaller schools. One would perhaps expect the schools with the best salary schedules to have the largest percentage of men teachers, but this is not the case. There seems to be no relation between the two.

TABLES NOS. 2 AND 3

DISTRIBUTION OF YEARS OF EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING OF TEACHERS AND HEAD DEPARTMENTS (NOT INCLUDING THIS YEAR)

Number of Years of Experience	(2) In All Schools		(3) In This School	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
20 years or more	7	29		12
19	2	6		4
18		5		
17	2	7		1
16		4		1
15	1	8		5
14	1	11		5
13		7		2
12		9		
11	1	11		4
10	2	18	1	2

9	5	16		6
8	6	17	1	11
7	4	25	4	15
6	5	18	3	21
5	12	27	8	17
4	24	26	9	30
3	9	40	13	32
2	9	30	13	53
1	13	24	37	77
0	14	21	34	83
Totals	117	359	123	381

Table 2 shows that the medians for teaching experience is 4.6 years for men and 6.6 years for women.

For the individual schools the medians vary for the men from .5 to 9.5 years, while the range for the women is from 2.8 to 11.5 years. As one would expect, the cities with the best salary schedules have the teachers with the most teaching experience.

These tables also show that there is twice the percentage of men teachers without experience as women, for the standing is: men 12%; women 6%.

When it comes to surviving the hardships of the teaching work, the women far outstrip the men, for there are 29 women teachers to only 7 men teachers with 20 or more years of experience.

From Table 3 it is computed that the medians of teaching experience in the schools where the teachers are now working is 1.7 years for men and 2.6 years for women. For the individual schools the range for men is .5 to 4.8 years, and for women .9 to 4.8 years. As to be expected from the individual school medians there are more newcomers to the respective schools among the men than women, as the percentage is 27% for the former as against 22% for the latter

TABLE NO. 4

	Number of other schools taught in						
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Number of teachers who taught in other schools .....(414)	121	134	112	75	57	27	9

It is fine to note from this table that the teachers in the AA1 schools are not of the "gypsy" type, for the median of the number of schools taught in is only 2.1 schools. The individual schools do not vary much in this respect, as all of them have medians in the neighborhood of the group median of 2.1 schools. About one-fourth of the teachers come to the AA1 schools without any experience, as 23% of the teachers have not taught in any other place.

TABLE NO. 5

SIZE OF 1926-27 FACULTY, TEACHER TURNOVER, AND REASONS

(a) Size of faculty for twenty schools 546
(b) Number of teachers not returning in these schools 137
The percentage of turnover in these schools 23.2%
(c) Tabulation of reasons for this turnover:

Reason	Number	Per Cent
Better position	25	18%
Cut in salary and lack of pay 1926-27	24	18%
Work unsatisfactory	17	12%
Graduate work	16	11%
Married	10	7%
Wanted new environment	8	6%
Poor health	7	5%
For own reasons	7	5%
Leaving profession	4	2%
Change in work	4	2%
Not satisfied with locality	2	1%
Promoted	2	1%
Position discontinued	2	1%
Dissatisfied with supervisor	1	.7%
Misunderstanding on part of school	1	.7%
Out of step with system	1	.7%
Family considerations	1	.7%
To take college position	1	.7%
	133	
One school gave no reasons for theirs leaving	4	2%
Total	137	

This table shows that the turnover of 23.2% means that the faculty is changing at the rate of once every four years.. For the individual schools there is a wide variation from 6% in one school to 52% in two schools. As to be expected the turnover is lowest where the salary schedules are highest.

When studying the causes of the turnover it is found that 36% of it is due to the salary question. This no doubt is higher than usual as the salary mix-up in one school alone caused 18% of the turnover.

It is an encouraging fact to note that 11% of the turnover is caused by teachers leaving their positions to do graduate work. About 10% of the turnover is due to teachers leaving the profession; as 2% are quitting teaching for various reasons, and 7% are quitting because of marriage.

RURAL SCHOOL ACCOMPLISHMENTS IN GUILFORD COUNTY, NORTH CAROLINA

By THOS. R. FOUST
Superintendent of the Guilford County Schools

GUILFORD COUNTY is situated in the Piedmont section of North Carolina and is practically in the geographical center of the state. It embraces a territory of about six hundred seventy-five square miles and has a school population as follows: rural, 11,039; special charter district of Greensboro, 9,060; special charter district of High Point, 7,040. It has a taxable wealth of $190,000,000.00. This taxable wealth is distributed as follows: rural, $46,000,000.00; special charter district of Greensboro, $100,000,000.00; special charter district of High Point, $44,000,000.00.

The constitution of North Carolina which was adopted in 1868 required the county commissioners of each county to levy a tax sufficient to run the public schools in the county for a term of four months. This section of the constitution was later changed by striking out the word "four" and inserting in lieu thereof the word "six," which gave to North Carolina a minimum term of six months for its public schools.

In 1901 the Legislature of North Carolina passed what is known as the local tax law. This act permitted the county board of education of any county to fix the boundaries of a school district and submit to the qualified voters thereof the question whether a special school tax should be levied in that territory to supplement the public school fund of the district. All public schools of North Carolina that had a term beyond the constitutional requirement had a local school tax. The progressive communities of the state took advantage of this law and voted local taxes ranging from thirty cents to fifty cents on the one hundred dollars valuation of property. These progressive communities, by this plan, developed fairly good schools, especially where there was concentrated in the district a considerable amount of taxable property. A great many school districts that had a small amount of taxable property voted the maximum tax that could be levied under the law and still did not have sufficient funds to operate good schools.

This plan developed schools of varying degrees of efficiency; it fastened upon North Carolina a species of educational favoritism because the amount of taxable wealth in the district determined the

* Paper presented at Boston, Massachusetts, February 29, 1928.

kind of school that could be maintained in that particular district. Not infrequently there would be two schools in adjoining districts, both levying the same special tax rate, and yet the amount of money per child would be very unequal.

Guilford County, up until 1922, was dotted with schools maintained in part by a local tax. The consequence was that the children of the county had very unequal educational opportunities. About 1920 the people of the county began to seriously study the situation and came to the conclusion that the only just remedy for the existing conditions would be to make the special tax county-wide.

The Legislature of 1921 passed what is known as the "Guilford County Equalizing Act." This act created a taxing district consisting of the whole of Guilford County with the exception of the charter districts of Greensboro and High Point. The Act of 1921 was an ennabling act and had to be ratified by a vote of the people before it became effective. The question was submitted to the people outside of the charter districts in the spring of 1921, but the proposition was defeated by a small majority. Soon after the election, the people began to realize that they had made a mistake and numerous petitions were presented to the county board of education asking that another election be held on the same question.

The second election was held in the spring of 1922 and was approved by a majority vote. Suit was entered in the name of a taxpayer of Guilford County to test the validity of the Act. It was carried to the supreme court of the state and that court, by a unanimous opinion, held the act and election valid. Under this equalizing act the county board of education of the county was authorized to borrow money for the purpose of erecting schoolhouses to an amount not exceeding $500,000.00. This question was also carried to the supreme court of the state and it was unanimously upheld.

Immediately succeeding the ratification of the equalizing act both as to the tax levy and the right of the board to borrow money, the county board of education began a program of consolidation, transportation, and erecting suitable school buildings. The amount of money necessary to erect suitable school buildings in the county at that time was provided by the $500,000.00 authorized in the equalizing act together with about $800,000.00, which was borrowed from the state building fund.

When the Legislature met in the winter of 1923, the principles of the Guilford County equalizing act were written into the state school law so that any county in the state can now create a taxing district consisting of a much larger unit than the local district. You

will notice that the Guilford County Taxing District did not include the charter districts of the two cities of Greensboro and High Point.

School advantages were equalized so far as the rural part of Guilford County was concerned, but the centers of wealth were not included in the special tax levy. The people of Guilford County including the leaders in the charter districts of Greensboro and High Point saw that there was still some educational favoritism shown by reason of the fact that the cities were not included in the taxing district. The Legislature of 1925 passed an act permitting the entire county to vote on the question whether a county-wide tax should be levied to run all schools of the county—cities included—for a term of eight months. (The rural population was opposed to a longer term than eight months.) This question was submitted to the people and was voted down principally because the tax rate was not limited.

In the spring of 1926 there was submitted to the people of the entire county—cities included—the question whether a special county-wide tax not exceeding thirty cents on the one hundred dollars valuation of property should be levied on all the taxable property of the county for the support of the public schools of the entire county. This proposition was carried by a small majority so that we now have a county-wide tax for a six months term and a special county-wide tax not exceeding thirty cents on the one hundred dollars valuation of property. These two tax rates together produce a school fund of over $1,200,000.00, and with this fund all the schools of the county are provided with an eight months term; the cities levy an additional tax and operate their schools for a period of nine months. This plan completely does away with educational favoritism and a child living in a rural section of the county has the same per capita wealth back of his education for a term of eight months as does the child who lives in the center of wealth.

We have adopted the plan of taxing the property wherever it is and applying the proceeds to the education of the child wherever he lives; but to reach this goal it has taken four county-wide elections and three decisions by our supreme court. When we first discussed the question of a county-wide special tax, those who were opposed to the measure attacked it upon the ground that it would lead to consolidation. Their real opposition was to the tax and not consolidation, because as soon as the tax was voted the people of the county readily coöperated with the county board of education in consolidating the schools.

The Legislature of North Carolina in the spring of 1927 passed an act which authorized the county commissioners of any county to

sell bonds and turn over the proceeds to the county board of education for the purpose of erecting school buildings. The county board of education of Guilford County requested the county commissioners to issue bonds to the amount of $500,000.00 in order to enable it to complete its building program. This request was granted and we are now using the money for enlarging old buildings and erecting new ones.

In 1922 there were eighty-nine white schools in Guilford County. This number was reduced to thirty-nine by 1927. With the completion of the building and consolidation program, the number will finally be reduced ten more, which will leave just twenty-nine white schools.

When we were operating the eighty-nine white schools in the county, the majority of them had less than three teachers; our final plan of consolidation calls for no school with less than six teachers. In those schools that have as few as six teachers only the elementary grades will be taught and, after completing the elementary schools, the pupils will be transported to the nearest high school.

Although each school now serves a much larger territory than was served by the average school before consolidation, the percentage of average daily attendance, based on the enrollment, has gradually increased each year since consolidation. This percentage was six higher in 1927 than in 1922.

One of the most marked results of consolidation has been the increase in the number of high school students in the county. In 1922 there were only 295 high school students in rural Guilford, whereas, during the school year which closed the first of July, 1927, there were 1,180 high school students enrolled. The number of standard high schools has increased from two in 1922—before consolidation—to eleven in 1927.

Of course we are aware of the fact that consolidation and transportation do not mean anything unless there is better instruction in the schools. We feel that we have sufficient evidence along this line to justify all we have done. Instruction in a school system depends to a great extent upon the kind of teachers. In 1922 we had, in rural Guilford, sixty-one teachers who held college diplomas; in 1927 there were 109 who were graduates of A grade colleges. In 1922 there were 184 teachers whose training was less than two years of standard college or standard normal school work, whereas in 1927 there were only forty-nine such teachers in the county. The county board of education has passed an order that no new teacher be employed for the school year 1928-1929, whose training is less than two years of standard normal school work.

Our supervisor of elementary education serves as a professional adviser to principals and teachers in improving instruction in the schools through professional study courses, teachers' meetings, school room visits, office conferences and the use of scientific tests which are given twice a year. It is possible for the work of this supervisor to function much more efficiently since the schools have been consolidated than when we had eighty-nine separate schools scattered over more than six hundred square miles. Under the guidance of the supervisor—during the past four years—we have been using the scientific tests through grades three to seven and the results show that during the past *two* years the average reading ability of the pupils has increased three-fourths of a grade; the children are one and a half grades higher in fundamentals in arithmetic, while in reasoning ability in arithmetic they are one grade higher. The average spelling ability of the children has increased four-fifths of a grade.

When we were operating eighty-nine schools in the county it meant that there were eighty-nine small community centers. The consolidated school has enlarged the boundaries of the community and is developing a type of citizen whose interest and sympathy extend beyond his own little neighborhood. The average citizen feels that he is connected with something worth while and is willing to give of his time and influence.

The consolidation of schools has made it possible for the county health department and the public welfare department to function much more efficiently than when the county was dotted with small one, two, and three-teacher schools.

The comparisons that I have made apply to the white schools and white teachers of the county. I would not have you draw the inference that we have neglected the colored part of our population. We have one negro consolidated school and money available now and plans made for two more negro consolidated schools. The colored population being rather small and widely scattered in this particular county, it is a difficult problem to get enough colored children together to make a first-class school, but we have worked out a plan whereby we will have at least four of the large type negro schools. We give the negroes the same length of school term that we have for the white children. In determining the number of teachers that are permitted in a negro school, the same rule is applied to the negro schools as is applied to the white schools. In each instance the number of teachers is determined by the average attendance of the preceding year. The supervisor of negro elementary education is work-

ing faithfully to improve the instruction among the children of her race. Wherever negro children complete the elementary school course and the county has not provided for high school instruction in the local school, the tuition is paid by the county and these children are given the opportunity of continuing their work.

To summarize, Guilford County has the following: A county-wide tax for the support of the schools for a term of eight months; a consolidation program practically completed by the operation of eighty-nine school busses, transporting 3,521 children daily; Vocational Agriculture and Vocational Home Economics taught in the large high schools; a county health department consisting of a superintendent of health, a sanitary inspector, and two whole time nurses; physical examination, by a competent nurse, of each child in school at least once a year; public welfare department consisting of a superintendent of public welfare and three competent assistants; supervisor of white elementary schools and a supervisor of negro elementary schools.

These departments are functioning through the consolidated schools, whereas if the county had, as formerly, the eighty-nine separate schools scattered over the more than six hundred square miles, the work could not be done with efficiency.

EVENING MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOL FOR ADULTS

A pupil absent two or three times without valid excuse is dropped from the roll and his place filled from the waiting list in the manual training department of Evening School 60, Buffalo, N. Y., consequently the attendance of the 30 pupils enrolled is nearly perfect. The school has a modern well-equipped cabinetmaker's shop to which only adults are admitted. Many of the pupils are newly married men interested in making furniture for their homes. The wives or sweethearts of a number of the men at the same time attend evening classes in reedwork and sewing for the purpose of making home furnishings.

INDUSTRIAL PLANTS ARE LABORATORIES FOR SCHOOL

Evening class enrollment in Mechanics Institute, Rochester, N. Y., exceeds enrollment in day classes. Registration in the school of industrial arts is 700 in evening classes and 280 in day classes; in the school of home economics, 300 in evening and 260 in day classes; and the school of applied arts has 400 evening and 290 day students.

For practical laboratory work in coöperative courses offered by the school of industrial arts of the institute, use is made of the numerous large industrial plants in and near Rochester. Students alternate four weeks in classes in the institute and four weeks in the factory.

*SCIENCE TEACHER-TRAINING IN NORTH CAROLINA**

By C. E. PRESTON
The University of North Carolina

ONE OF THE difficulties in preparing a paper on one phase of a general topic, such as this one of teacher-training, without previous conference with the other speakers is that there always exists a middle ground common to all phases, within the limits of which one is more or less likely to repeat what has already been presented. So far as such repetition occurs in this paper, I trust it may be pardoned.

I understand that my task is principally that of introducing the science side of this work, in such a way that profitable discussion may follow. I assume, further, that the term "Science" excludes the nature study of the lower grades, for the teaching of which a rather different preparation is required.

It is a generally accepted idea, I think, that teacher-training includes four important steps:

1. Giving to young people preparing for service as liberal an education as possible, that our children may come into contact with men and women of clear and extensive vision and with a wide range of interests, experiences and sympathies, men and women who read and think, who see things in a large way and will lead wisely and effectively.

2. Thoroughly grounding prospective teachers in the content of the subjects they intend to teach. No one can teach successfully that which he himself does not know. Far too many teachers, even of those who have had adequate preparation in their chosen subjects, have by program exigencies been placed in positions where they have been made to feel the effects of this handicap; how much more must it be true of the young person who enters upon actual teaching service prematurely, and how great the effect of his incompetence upon the children placed in his charge.

3. Instructing candidates in the methods, knowledge, and ideals of the profession. Our objective is educating children, adjusting them to the world in which they live, teaching them to reason, observe, understand, appreciate, developing them in body, mind and soul; it is not primarily the handing on to them of the information obtained

* A paper presented before the Higher Education section of the North Carolina Education Association, Raleigh, March 23, 1928.

by the research of past generations, to the end that this knowledge be not lost in the future. In accordance with this viewpoint the teacher cannot attain anything like maximum efficiency, or even render at all satisfactory service, without some knowledge of the nature of youth, and the problems, methods, materials, and practices of the teaching art.

4. Giving to prospective teachers, preferably in the final year of their training, the opportunity for observation and actual teaching practice under supervision in the class-room. Here they accustom themselves to the school atmosphere and see the principles which they have learned applied in daily work; here they gradually familiarize themselves with routine duties and methods and get a wealth of experimental contacts with the reactions and personalities of pupils. Here with their supervisors they discuss the strong and the weak points in the handling of the day's lesson and decide upon technique for its improvement. Above all, if the training school is what it should be, here they see more or less exemplary conditions, and by contact with superior men and women of the profession they become infected with the spirit of cheerful and self-sacrificing service that characterizes every teacher who believes in the importance of his calling.

With the first and fourth of these objectives, since they are not confined to the training of science teachers, but affect all branches, this paper is not primarily concerned. I hope, however, at its close to point out one or two problems that they raise, of which the method of solution adopted will determine to a very great degree the standards of the schools of the state. The second and third, dealing with content and methods of science instruction, must be the main theme.

It will be noted that the outline of each of these four steps as given contains a quantity that is relative rather than absolute. What constitutes a broad liberal education? What is a thorough grounding in the content of high school science? What is a satisfactory degree of professional training? To what extent should prospective teachers be required to observe and practice under supervision? These are problems that must be settled in terms of state educational conditions. Quantitatively they will probably be settled alike for all teachers in training. Qualitatively they must be determined within different departments of the work.

Let us for the time, then, consider this qualitative aspect. What should be the nature of the content courses given to those intending to teach science? Two factors influence our answer particularly.

The first of these is the nature of high school teaching as a whole as distinguished from college teaching. I have already pointed out that our main purpose as school teachers is to aid in the development of human beings, not to disseminate information. We work with the masses, not with a select few. We strive to do the greatest amount of possible good to the greatest numbers rather than to enable a handful of men and women to make a name for themselves in the scientific world. We are interpreters, popularizers, broadcasters of science rather than research experimenters in that field. We know that few of our pupils are destined to become chemists or physicists or biologists, but that they all are to become citizens in a democracy, interdependent members with us of the same social order.

Our highly complicated manner of life today differs from that of even the recent past mainly because of the application of scientific principles. We travel and transport by means of power furnished through expanding gases or through induced electric currents; we regulate our health through understanding of the germ theory of disease; we communicate by reason of our control over waves in the ether; our clothing, houses, personal comforts, amusements and even to a considerable degree our foods are supplied to us on our accustomed scale by reason of scientific invention. Our homes are full of devices which, to be rightly used, require a certain type of scientific knowledge.

If teachers are to adjust young people to so complex an environment, they must be prepared to give them an understanding of these fundamental principles through study of their common applications. They therefore need for their content preparation courses that are broadly and practically environmental rather than narrow, theoretical, and remote from application to everyday life. Such courses today are offered in many collegiate institutions as introductions to the various divisions of science. In colleges that now shape their introductory courses more specifically to prepare for higher research, separate courses more adapted to the needs of teachers may possibly have to be set up, if they are to attempt teacher-preparation.

The second factor that helps determine the nature of content training is the present relatively small average size of our high schools. This means that what we need for science teachers just now is not specialists in one science, but people who are able to teach the fundamentals of all the various high school science branches. Indeed they are fortunate if they find their work confined even within these broad limits. To fit them for such a task, our training schools must see to it that they get preferably an introduction to as many

as possible of these different branches rather than dig deeply into one branch, though this may well come in addition if time allows. Too great specialization has its dangers. Science is not in reality divided into separate compartments except for convenience in study. In order to be a good botanist for example, one must know much of geology, chemistry, physics, climatology, zoölogy, and all the rest.

The matter of professional training I shall touch only so far as it deals with methods and materials of science. Here two plans may be followed: one that of giving special detailed instruction in each science, the other that of considering those elements of teaching method that are common to all sciences. The former has opportunity to give more in the way of specific devices, the latter must content itself with general principles. Whatever the course or courses of either of these types that may be required, they should follow rather than precede the content courses. If a single course is given, as many of the content courses as possible should have been previously completed. The purpose of this type of course is to develop in the student the high school point of view and to familiarize him with the technique of instruction. This in its fundamentals is the same for all sciences. Such a course might be organized to include the following points: brief consideration of the evolution of science teaching in response to the changing ideals of education in the past; with this as a background, a more careful study of present-day aims and their effect upon choice of subject matter, methods of presentation and character of tests given; technique of the important teaching methods; preparation and discussion of specimen unit lesson plans selected from different fields; the place of the laboratory; importance and methods of conducting field excursions and science clubs; the development (through science training) of proper study habits and attitudes that will accompany the pupil out into his later life and make him intellectually independent. To this list should be added, unless it is provided elsewhere in the training as a separate subject, some brief consideration of methods and purposes of testing and measuring results.

For best effects this course, or at least part of it, should be given in a room equipped as a school laboratory, in order that some demonstration work may be performed and criticized, and that some regular lessons may be carried through as before a high school class, with all necessary materials and appliances at hand. Certainly no one should be considered qualified to teach science who has not proven himself familiar with its laboratory and demonstration side.

I wish to stop here just a moment to emphasize the importance

of using our high school science courses as a means of developing proper study habits, and of training our students for this work. To far too great a degree, even in this age of relative enlightment in matters educational, the idea still persists, particularly among teachers poorly trained, that study is almost exclusively memory work. Parents have even to a greater extent the same erroneous idea. Moreover, by many of those who regard teaching merely as a temporary, or a secondary, occupation, the memory method is followed because it requires the least teaching effort. Out of such teaching long pursued in the past has grown an almost reverential acceptance of the wording of the text-book, even when it is not comprehended, and its substitution for any real understanding of, and thought upon, the topic studied. It is because of such teaching, I believe, that we frequently hear the comment from college instructors in, let us say, chemistry that those in their classes who have had the subject in high school, working side by side with those who have not, do the poorer work of the two groups.

Two things are needful in order to change this condition. First, we must familiarize pupils with the various technical devices of study, such as accurate observation, the making and interpretation of experiments, diagrammatic drawings, tables of comparison and contrast, the use of the reference library, the processes of summarizing, analyzing and organizing so as to bring out salient points, the necessity for searching for and recognizing underlying principles and for applying these principles to particular situations. Secondly, having placed in their hands these devices of study, we must get them into the habit of using them. Once having grounded pupils in such an intelligent attitude we can send them out with a feeling of assurance on our part that they will soon possess themselves of more of the necessary factual knowledge than we can hope to impart to them in the short time at our disposal. Therefore let us impress upon our student teachers the importance of teaching how to study as one of our main objectives, and show them how to organize their teaching materials in such a form as to develop as wide a range of good study habits as possible.

I pass over the qualitative aspect of the observation and practice period because I feel that this period consists in the main of first watching and then carrying out under supervision the same operations concerning which students learned in the course on methods and materials, also because I believe that the contact that they get with school room routine, atmosphere and problems and with the personalities of the pupils is if anything more important that what they may learn that pertains especially to science.

Let us now turn to the quantitative side of the whole matter, which affects science equally with other branches. How much time should this training program occupy? Shall we take time to give special courses in methods for each science? How much in the way of content courses in each division of science shall we require? How much that comes under the head of liberal education? How much time shall be given to practice, and to professional study? Teacher-training bodies the country over vary widely in their estimates and usages. Some schools of education are essentially graduate institutions, others entirely undergraduate. Dean Russell of Columbia Teachers College is quoted as advocating, in addition to the A.B. degree and wide professional study, at least three years of content work in each division of science in which a student seeks certification as teacher. This is probably an extreme view, but it represents one man's ideal of the preparation a person who is to help mould the lives of human beings should have for his work.

I take it that, whatever our inward feelings may be, our public expression of approval of the fitness of teachers for service is made in the state certificate. I presume also, that in the ultimate analysis the matter is at the core financial, and subject to change with the developing prosperity of the state and with the interest that its citizens show in its public schools. We can have approximately what we are willing and able to pay for. So long as the salaries paid to public school teachers are too small to induce able men and women to give themselves to education as a life work, just so long have we no right to expect that young people will spend in preparation several years which might if used otherwise, be financially productive. We must content ourselves with short cuts and a mediocre product. So long as our training schools, upon whatever public or private financial source they may draw for support, are inadequately equipped to provide the exemplary conditions we wish our students to see and imitate, and are manned by teachers not specially adapted for the work of training, all this because of insufficient appropriations, just so long will even the small amount of time which is spent accomplish far less than might otherwise be done. Science, requiring more than the ordinary financial outlay for equipment, suffers especially in proportion as these needs are left unfilled.

In common with the other southeastern states North Carolina has had her share of handicaps in the past. Depleted by war of her manpower to a degree not experienced by states in the north, her seemingly greatest asset converted almost over night into a great liability, she had practically to start anew her program of education

following the turmoil of the reconstruction period. With the exception of a few cities of only medium size, she has remained a state of small communities widely scattered. Without the advantage of the virgin soil and precious ores that lured settlers to the western states, and retarded in influx of wealth-producing population from without, partly by those prejudices and hatreds, now happily outgrown, which were engendered by the civil struggle, partly by a misconception that still prevails in many portions of the country as to her climate, she has only recently shared in the turn of the tide of prosperity southward. It is my feeling that she will benefit still further as the years pass, and with the same enterprise with which she has built up and is ever extending her magnificent system of roads, making possible the establishment of larger educational centers, she will give attention to the work of those centers themselves, and to the whole problem of raising the intellectual standard of her citizenry through better teachers and larger educational opportunities. In proportion as this comes about will the training of teachers naturally be increased from both the qualitative and quantitative standpoints, and opportunity be given for great specialization within the field of high school science, a field now so wide and so rapidly changing in the light of new scientific discoveries that it is more than an ordinary teacher can do to keep satisfactorily abreast of its advances.

MORE DEANS OF GIRLS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The example of Chicago in establishing deans of girls (in 1913) has been followed by an increasing number of schools, at first slowly, but of late with astonishing rapidity. In 1918 a questionnaire sent out to the 7000 high schools of the United States by the United States Bureau of Education returned 300 as the number of high school deans in the United States. Now Illinois alone has 139. A survey made in California in 1923 shows that one out of every three high schools had some one in the school serving as an especial adviser of girls. . . . According to the 1927 report of the National Association of Deans of Women, 28 of the 48 states have state deans' associations or are affiliated with small regional conferences, the members of which are, many of them, high school deans.—From "The Dean of Girls in the Secondary School" by Sarah M. Sturtevant in *School and Society*.

HIGH SCHOOL FRENCH

By HUGO GIDUZ
The University of North Carolina

IN THE MAJORITY of high schools in North Carolina only two years of language is offered. Usually the pupils may elect to begin this study either in their second or third year.

For those pupils who intend to continue their study of the foreign language begun in the high school, there should be a fixed rule that they may not begin this study before their junior year. The pupil who begins his foreign language in the sophomore year and completes his two years of study in the junior year places himself in a position that is almost sure to be fatal so far as his chances of success with this language in college are concerned.

During his senior year, this pupil who is not then studying his foreign language, almost without exception forgets a large part, if not almost all, of what he learned none too well during the two previous years. When he enters college after this lapse and again takes up his study of French, German, or Spanish, he finds himself at a great disadvantage. He is "rusty." Others who finished their two years' work the preceding June forge ahead. He flounders about trying to get in line. Soon he either discovers for himself that he is hopelessly lost, and decides for himself that it is better for him to drop the course, or the instructor advises him to do so. If perchance he does do well enough to "get by," he is compelled to work so hard to keep up with the class that he rarely arrives at the stage of having a real liking for the subject, no matter how much interest he may have had in the subject during his early days of study.

If, on the contrary, the pupil has done his work during the last two years of high school, he can enter college with his language fresher in his mind, and without the fear of having forgotten—a fear that is exceedingly common, and very injurious to successful study. What is more, this fear of having forgotten will often deter students from continuing their language study in college.

Of course, for pupils who are not planning to enter college and continue their language study it is not a matter of great moment whether they begin in the sophomore or junior year.

In systems where the modern languages are begun in the junior high school, the languages should be continued throughout the high school course. In such cases it might suffice to give only two or three recitations a week where it is not practical to continue with the usual five recitations. But in any case, there should be no break between the end of the high school course and the beginning of the college course. It is only through continuity of study from high school to college that satisfactory progress can be made.

SOME OUTSTANDING CHILDREN'S BOOKS OF 1927

By NORA BEUST
The University of North Carolina

GATEWAY TO AMERICAN HISTORY. R. G. Adams. Little, 1927.

Engravings gathered from old and rare histories are the basis of this work. The pictures are clear-cut and represent scenes and events that are vital to the understanding of American history. The period covered is that from the world before Columbus to the founding of New Amsterdam. Will be of great value in arousing interest in this period of American life.

EVERYTHING AND ANYTHING. Dorothy Aldis. Minton, Balch, 1927.

Simple and spontaneous verses for little children that are about "everything and anything." Some are pure fancy, others, of the world about us, and still others are of health habits.

WINGED HORSE. J. H. Ausland and F. E. Hill. Doubleday, 1927.

The authors say, "We wrote this book, because we wanted to write it," and also, "We saw that such a book was needed." The story of poetry has been re-created for us with enthusiasm and beauty. The reader feels the power of poetry as he reads, if he has never felt it before. Each chapter is complete in itself, for the poetry of each period is set in its own background. The successive chapters give us the story of poetry from the beginnings, through the Greek and Roman periods and mediaeval Europe to the poets of Great Britain and America. Rhyme and meter are not neglected, neither do we have an anthology with short comments. It is the story of poetry with enough verse included to lead to further reading and to illustrate the comments of the authors. Excellent lists. Might easily lead to creative work by boys and girls. For high school use and beyond.

CHILDREN'S BOOK OF AMERICAN LANDMARKS. L. M. Bryant. Century, 1927.

A good collection of fifty photographic illustrations, with descriptions showing places of historical interest in the country. It is uniform in make-up with the other books of the author's series of celebrated objects. Includes: Plymouth Rock, Castle Garden, Roosevelt Dam, totem poles, Temple in Salt Lake City, Monticello, and others of similar interests.

THE WIND THAT WOULDN'T BLOW. A. B. Chrisman. Dutton, 1927.

These merry old world tales based on Chinese legends are told with humor and world wise philosophy. The quaint silhouettes illustrate the oriental spirit of the books.

A CHILD'S THOUGHT OF GOD: RELIGIOUS POEMS FOR CHILDREN. T. C. Clark and E. A. Gillespie. Minton, Balch, 1927.

This collection, of marked simplicity, includes in its range the Bible, old carols, Shakespere, William Blake, Christina G. Rosetti, Edwin Markham, and Nancy Bird Turner. Many lines that a child would like to memorize are found in the volume. May be used with very little children.

BOY'S BOOK OF EXPERIMENTS. A. F. Collins. Crowell, 1927.

A splendid introduction to the study of chemistry and physics which will appeal to the boys and girls who have a bent for investigating and doing things for themselves. Good illustrations.

GIRLS WHO DID: STORIES OF REAL GIRLS AND THEIR CAREERS. H. J. Ferris. Dutton, 1927.

An inspirational collection of the biographies of women of today who have been successful in their choice of endeavor. The natural talents and aptitudes, as well as the circumstances leading to their attainment, are interestingly told. Useful in vocational guidance.

TALES WORTH TELLING. C. J. Finger. Century, 1927.

Tales of Java, of Hungary, of South America, of Turkey and of other lands that are told with ease and skill. The imaginative child will revel in their beauty. Paul Honoré has caught the spirit of the work in his magical illustrations.

CHILDREN OF THE MOOR. Laura Fitinghoff. Houghton, 1927.

A Swedish classic which tells of how seven children set out in search of food and how they meet with many an adventure and hardship and suffering; but finally with friends and homes. The book is full of real human interest and will take the reader into scenes that will broaden his outlook and deepen his sympathies. Will be read by the fifth grade and beyond.

ALL ABOUT ANIMALS. Lilian Gask. Crowell, 1927.

Popular descriptions of two hundred animals which are easily used because of the alphabetical arrangement. Clear photographic illustrations of most of the animals add to the value of the books. The information given is that sought by children of the fourth grade and beyond.

THE HAPPY HOUR BOOKS. Macmillan, 1927.

Gay colored, inexpensive little books for the beginners in reading. The titles in the series include: Three Billy Goats Gruff, Little Black Sambo, The Bremen Band, and six other well loved stories.

SIBERIAN GOLD. T. A. Harper. Doubleday, 1927.

Stephen Wyld, a young American mining engineer, is sent into Sibera to establish a modern mine. In the course of this well told exciting adventurous tale, we hear much of the life and country of the Russians. Romance, friendships, and folklore are all successfully woven into the story.

LITTLE BLACK AND WHITE LAMB. Inez Hogan. Macrae-Smith, 1927.

Bright colored illustrations help to make this repetitive tale of a lamb who wished to be like other lambs until he is made to realize that others would be of his color, if they could. The author does not find it necessary to point a moral. Teachers will find the book very useful.

PETER POCKET. Mary Justus. Doubleday, 1927.

Peter Pocket, a loveable Cumberland Mountain lad, might have been in the North Carolina Mountains where he could have lived in the same kind of a

brown log cabin and gone to a mountain school. We hear of the Thanksgiving and Christmas celebrations and all of the everyday happenings of a happy mountain boy's life. Will have local interest. For the third and fourth grades.

CARL'S VISIT TO THE MOON. Maja Lindberg. Harper, 1927.

A delicately colored Swedish picture book which contains a whimsical and humorous fairy tale of a small boy's ride to the moon in a soap bubble.

MILLICENT MOUSE AND HER FUNNY WEE HOUSE. Arthur Mansbridge. Warne, 1927.

Quaint brightly colored pictures and rhymes of Mill Millicent mouse and her neat wee house go into the making of this picture book for the littlest ones.

TRADE WIND. C. L. Meigs. Little, 1927.

A tale of the sea in the thrilling times before the Revolution. We hear of brave and daring men and smell the tang of the salt in the air and feel the swell of the ocean waves. Well told.

MARIONETTES, MASKS, AND SHADOWS. W. H. Mills. Doubleday, 1927.

The history of the marionettes, choosing your play, making your stage, scenery, marionettes and properties, together with information about the mask, costumes and setting, and shadow plays all go into the making of this attractive book. Well illustrated and practical. Reference is made to a good selection of prose literature from which students can arrange their own plays. For high school use or with younger children with guidance.

NOW WE ARE SIX. A. A. Milne. Dutton, 1927.

Rhythm and humor together with a penetrating knowledge of child nature help to make Christopher Robin live for us again in these magical verses.

SINGING YOUTH. Mabel Mountsier, ed. Harper, 1927.

An anthology of poems by American and British children showing originality of ideas and phrasing and beauty of thought. Will be an inspiration to boys and girls who have poetic inclinations.

GAY-NECK. D. G. Murkerji. Dutton, 1927.

A colorful and dramatic story of a Hindu lad and his iridescenthroated carrier pigeon who is the bearer of the Lama priest's messages of courage and wisdom in war and in peace. We have stirring adventure in the wild life of the jungle and scenes from the Great War. The decorations by Boris Artxybasheff emphasize the dramatic action of the tale.

ANT-HILLS AND SOAP BUBBLES. M. G. Phillips. Macrae-Smith, 1927.

Everything that is told about the ants has been actually observed by the author. An elf assists the author in making the scientific facts read like a story book. For children of the third, fourth and fifth grades.

SARAH'S DAKIN. M. L. Robinson. Dutton, 1927.

The companionship between Sarah and her father, and Sarah and her collie on a Maine farm make a wholesome story for girls from ten to fifteen years.

DOWNRIGHT DENCEY. C. D. Snedeker. Doubleday, 1927.

Dencey, a lively Quaker maid of old Nantucket, meets with many a strange happening. We hear much of the sea and its influence on the lives of the inhabitants. The story carries the atmosphere of the whaling days of one hundred fifty years ago.

THE BOY'S LIFE OF COLONEL LAWRENCE. Lowell Thomas. Century, 1927.

Enough of Lawrence's youth is told to show that he was always adventurously inclined. Boys will enjoy the strategy, dexterity, and the physical strength that the hero displays. There is plenty of action and interesting descriptions of the land of the "Arabian nights" during the time of the World War campaigns.

IN THE HILLS OF GALILEE. Louis Tucker. Bobbs-Merrill, 1927.

Jesus and his friends are made very real in this human and still glorious life of Christ. A better understanding of the times as well as of the people of the Bible will be gleaned by children from reading the intimate accounts of everyday events as well as of the wonders of the times.

MAGPIE LANE. N. B. Turner. Harcourt, 1927.

Spirited and imaginative verses that have caught the happy action of children's fancies. Delightful silhouettes by Decie Merwin.

CHRISTMAS IN STORYLAND. Maude Van Buren and K. I. Bemis, ed. Century, 1927.

The stories which first appeared in the *St. Nicholas, Youth's Companion,* and other magazines will be a real help to the librarian in the rush for Christmas literature.

AMERICA. Hendrik Van Loon. Boni, 1927.

A very readable history for young Americans in the manner of his *Story of Mankind,* which well illustrated the vision and wisdom of the author. The style of the book is fascinating in its conciseness and at times startling in the almost flippant expression of ideas. The illustrations are a clever reinforcement of the text. High school students will find themselves thinking as they read this history. The book will be enjoyed by all ages.

PEPPI THE DUCK. Rhea Wells. Doubleday, 1927.

How Peppi who lived in the Alps swam into the world to meet with many an adventure, to see a costume party, and to see the gay market place. Bright colored pictures after the style of *Poppy seed Cakes* by Margaret Clark. For children of the first three grades.

PLAYING WITH CLAY. I. W. Wheeler. Macmillan, 1927.

A useful book for parents and teachers in the development of clay modeling with children. The story of pottery from earliest times to Michael Angelo is sketched. Will have a wide local appeal.

PALE MOUNTAINS: FOLK TALES FROM THE DOLOMITES. C. F. Wolff. Minton, Balch, 1927.

Fairy tales which are rich in the characteristic beauty of their setting in the Alps mountains. The stories are symbolical and have the elements of old world folklore. There is material here for the story-teller.

WONDER SMITH AND HIS SON. Ella Young. Longmans, 1927.

Beautiful, humorous, and imaginative tales from Gaelic Ireland. The heroic and romantic forces will appeal to the adolescent boy and girl.

EARLY EUROPEAN ASSOCIATIONS OF TEACHERS

On the occasion of the establishment of the new international organization of European teachers it was stated that the first teachers' association was established in France in 1833; in Bohemia in 1840; in Holland in 1844. The National Union of Teachers was established in England in 1870; Deutscher Lehrerverein in Germany in 1871; Bond van Onderwijzers in Holland in 1874; Zemsky ústredni spolek učitelskych jednot in Bohemia in 1880; Ústredni spolek učitelskych jednot in Moravia in 1883; Féderation des Amicales d'Instituteurs in France in 1901.—*Emanuel V. Lippert in School Life.*

CORPORATION SCHOOL ALLIED WITH UNIVERSITY

Academic recognition of advanced engineering courses conducted by the Westinghouse Company is given by the University of Pittsburgh. Certain Westinghouse engineers in responsible charge of the courses are recognized by the graduate school of the university as faculty members, and courses offered by the educational department of the company may be counted for graduate resident credit at the university. Research work and resulting theses may be carried out under the direction of Westinghouse engineers who are accorded this recognition. So far 85 men have enrolled for this specialized work.

*RESOLUTIONS RESPECTING RURAL EDUCATION**

By BURR F. JONES AND OTHERS

WE, THE MEMBERS of the Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association, unite in reaffirming our belief in the importance of the education of country children and in re-pledging ourselves to this cause.

1. As students of general education we recognize the fundamental principles and many basic elements common to education in both rural and urban territory. This common background represents in our judgment a very large proportion of the total process. Notwithstanding the preponderance of common elements, we maintain that there is unquestioned need particularly at present for the partial differentiation and adaptation of education in rural areas. The justification of such differentiation in our conviction arises *first* from differences in the rural social environment, that is, in country life itself as compared with urban life; and *second* from differences in the educative process as conditioned by the rural social environment or farm background. These differences in our experience find chief expression in the four practical fields of:

1. Rural school curriculum—both elementary and secondary.
2. Rural teacher-preparation.
3. Rural school supervision.
4. And the administration of rural schools.

In the realm of curriculum adaptation, which is basic to all others, we submit that general educational objectives for rural children are substantially the same as those for city children, but that the rural environment itself demands (a) a different method of approach, (b) a different emphasis on certain phases of subject-matter, and (c) to some extent an actual difference in content and in teaching materials.

In teacher-preparation the differentiated phases of instruction should include:

1. The study of the rural social and economic environment, usually designated as a special course in *rural sociology and economics.*

* These resolutions were prepared by a committee consisting of Burr F. Jones (Chairman), State Supervisor of Elementary Education for Massachusetts; Mabel Carney, of Teachers College, Columbia University; A. M. Hopper, State Supervisor of Elementary School, Baton Rouge, Louisiana; and Hattie S. Parrott, State Supervisor of Rural Schools, Raleigh, North Carolina. They were adopted by the Department of Rural Education of The National Education Association at the Boston meeting, February 29, 1928.

2. The study of the rural physical environment as provided through specialized courses in *Nature Study and Agriculture for Appreciation.*
3. The study of the adaptations of education in the rural environment best designated perhaps as a course in *Rural Education* or *Rural School Teaching.*
4. Enough practice teaching in one-teacher and consolidated schools to make for efficiency in the later instruction and management of such schools.
5. Membership in a rural student organization or Country Life Club where rural interests and rural social leadership may be cultivated.

In supervision and administration, the various conditioning factors of the rural social and economic environment such as comparative isolation, sparse population, marked individualism, inadequate revenues, numerous classes, meagre equipment, and many others, all tend to specialize the problems of rural school direction and reveal particular phases of differentiation requiring special study and analysis.

In this connection we desire to call attention to the need for state leaders in rural education and to the desirability of having our higher institutions of nation-wide influence provide special instruction in this field. In making such provision, however, we strongly advise that this be done on a regional basis with groups of states coöperating through a single institution thus avoiding an expensive duplication and overlapping of effort.

This whole problem of differentiation and adaptation in rural education is still largely within the province of personal opinion. For this reason we acknowledge the urgent need of research and experimentation in this field and place ourselves on record as desiring further study and investigation of the many sub-problems raised. It is our earnest hope that a nation-wide plan of research may be promoted in this field and that adequate financial aid for carrying out such a program may be found. In the meantime as immediate contributions to this end we urge the enlistment of graduate students in our various universities and colleges on rural researches as well as the more adequate representation and inclusion of the rural phase of all investigations and studies now being undertaken in general educational fields.

2. It is a well established fact that educational opportunities are in general unequal as between rural and urban communities. This inequality exists because wealth is not distributed among local units

of school support in proportion to their educational needs. Even if the wealth available for the education of each child should be equalized as between rural and urban communities, the rural children would still be at a distinct disadvantage because educational costs are greater per pupil in sparsely populated areas. The Department of Rural Education, recognizing these inequalities, places itself on record as favoring the following policies of educational support:

1. That the unit for local taxation in many states should be enlarged.
2. That the state should bear a larger share of rural school support, at least fifty per cent, and that the state funds should be distributed on the basis of educational need and effort.
3. That a state equalizing fund, large enough to give every community adequate educational advantages, should be provided.

3. Believing that more emphasis in rural education should be placed upon the study and promotion of parental education, we recommend that this emerging subject have the particular attention of this group and that special efforts be made to secure funds for research and experimentation along this line.

4. Recognizing the value of 4H club work now conducted through the United States Department of Agriculture, the Department of Rural Education offers its good offices to those in charge of the work for a study of the present program with a view to effecting any revision of the program that it may be found desirable to make in order that rural children may be most effectively served by this type of education.

5. The Department of Rural Education wishes to express to the United States Bureau of Education its hearty appreciation of the constructive efforts being made by the Bureau to raise the standards of rural school supervision through the holding of regional conferences for rural school supervisors. We most heartily endorse also the national conference on rural teacher preparation held under the auspices of the Bureau on Saturday, February 25. We believe that these are among the most fruitful undertakings of the Federal Government in behalf of rural education and we hope that they may be continued as needed in the future.

6. We believe that one of the outstanding needs of education in this country is the establishment of a Federal Department of Education charged with the duties of coördinating existing federal undertakings in this field and of conducting research activities for the benefit of the nation's schools. In offering school officials information as to the best practices developed in the best schools of the country,

in conducting continuous research so vital to the progressive development of our educational program in all schools and especially needed at this time in rural education, such a department would provide for education a service as valuable as that now provided for agriculture, commerce, and labor. We believe that the rendering of such assistance is a most important function of the national government and that it can be best carried out through the establishment of a Department of Education with a Secretary in the President's cabinet. We, therefore, give hearty endorsement to the Curtis-Reed bill.

Respectfully submitted,

BURR F. JONES (Chairman), State Supervisor of Elementary Education, Massachusetts.
MABEL CARNEY, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.
A. M. HOPPER, State Supervisor of Elementary Schools, Baton Rouge, Louisiana.
HATTIE S. PARROTT, State Supervisor of Rural Schools, Raleigh, North Carolina.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF TESTS AND TESTING

Tests give us very valuable information about the child. While accepting the information which they have to offer, the teacher should not neglect other sources of knowledge and use *only* scores of standardized tests. Often this would involve a very serious injustice to the individual child. For instance, never grade in subject matter by the intelligence-test score. It would be almost as fair in certain subjects to grade children by their height and weight as by their score on the intelligence test. Neither should the achievement tests in specific subject matter be the *sole* basis for grading; everything else that the child has done during the year should be equally well considered, to avoid unfairness to him. *Test scores are merely valuable evidence; they are not final judgment.*—From "An Introduction to Educational Measurements" by Norman Fenton and Dean A. Worcester.

THE LATIN CONTEST

By J. Minor Gwynn
The University of North Carolina

A record enrollment of 87 schools with 1305 student contestants marked the holding of the fourth state high school Latin contest on March 2nd, 1928. This contest is conducted annually by the Extension Division and the Latin Department of the University, participation in it being open to all accredited white public high schools of North Carolina.

The value of this annual Latin contest can be estimated to some extent by both the total number of contestants from year to year and by the quality of the papers submitted for the award. Looking back over enrollment statistics for the four years of competition, it is found that in 1925 there were 64 competing schools with 875 contestants; in 1926 there were 75 schools with 1200 contestants; in 1927 there were 33 schools with 710 contestants. These figures show that there has been a gradual increase in the total number of competing schools and contestants with the exception of 1927. These figures are considered as a rather significant index of the interest aroused by the contest in view of the fact that 124 high schools offering Latin in 1925 have since then discontinued this subject as a course in their curricula.[1]

In regard to the quality of the papers submitted in the contest, a continual improvement has been noted, as was pointed out in the account of the 1927 contest.[2] The papers of this year were no exception to this. As compared to the 12.5% of the schools entered averaging 90 or better in 1927, the figures for 1928 were 15%.

Another indication of the interest taken in this contest is evidenced by the entry, unofficially, this year of six private schools and two non-accredited institutions. In accordance with suggestions from Latin teachers, a list of the Latin teachers in the secondary schools was secured through the courtesy of the high school inspector's office and announcements of the contest were sent to most of the Latin teachers. This procedure probably had much to do with the increase in interest and enrollment.

Since the trophy cup is presented to the school whose pupil scores the highest among the individual papers, and not to the school making the highest average, any school may have a chance in the contest, no matter how few students it may have studying Latin.

[1] High School Journal, March, 1928, p. 109.
[2] High School Journal, March-April, 1927, p. 80.

RESULTS OF THE 1928 CONTEST

First place won for Roxboro High School by Eugene Conally.
First honorable mention won for Roxboro High School by Edna Reams.
Second honorable mention won for Durham High School by Jacob Levin and for Roxboro High School by Samuel Byrd Winstead—A tie.
Third honorable mention won for Shelby High School by Milan Bridges.
Fourth honorable mention won for Wilson High School by Harper Barnes.
Fifth honorable mention won for Shelby High School by Kate Bridges.

Roxboro High School had the highest average for the three papers submitted.

In addition to the school mentioned above, the following high schools sent in at least one paper with the grade of 90 or better:

Asheville, Charlotte, Concord, Davidson, Fayetteville, High Point, Lenoir, Mt. Airy, Winston-Salem.

A copy of the test is given herewith:

THE LATIN CONTEST CONDUCTED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA, MARCH 2, 1928

(Number your answers as the questions are numbered. No text or vocabularies are to be used on this test. Be sure to write out and sign a pledge at the end of your paper. The test is to be completed within three hours.)

I

TRANSLATE THE LATIN

The Enemy Are Amused at Caesar's Preparations for a Siege

Ac primo adventu exercitus nostri crebras ex oppido excursiones faciebant parvulisque proeliis cum nostris contendebant; postea vallo passuum in circuitu XV milium crebrisque castellis circummuniti oppido sese continebant. Ubi vineis actis aggere exstructo turrim procul constituti viderunt, primum irridere ex muro atque increpitare vocibus, quod tanta machinatio ab tanto spatio instrueretur: quibusnam manibus aut quibus viribus praesertim homines tantulae staturae (nam plerumque omnibus Gallis prae magnitudine corporum suorum brevitas nostra contemptui est) tanti oneris turrim moturos sese confiderent?

II

(The numbers in parentheses refer to lines in the text above)

1. Identify the case and explain the use of the case for each of the following words: adventur (1), passuum (2), oppido (3), aggere (4), turrim (4), staturae (7), contemptui (8).
2. Name the form and explain the use of the mood and tense of each of the following words: irridere (4), instrueretur (5), confiderent (8).
3. Give the principal parts of each of the following words: circummuniti (3), exstructo (4).

III

TRANSLATE THE LATIN

Caesar Pardons the Troops Who Surrendered, and with Fresh Forces Marches On

Caesar prima luce omnes eos qui in monte consederant ex superioribus locis in planitiem descendere atque arma proicere iussit. Quod ubi sine recusatione fecerunt passisque palmis proiecti ad terram flentes ab eo salutem petiverunt, consolatus consurgere iussit et pauca apud eos de lenitate sua locutus, quo minore essent timore, omnes conservavit, militibusque suis commendavit, ne qui eorum violaretur, neu quid sui desiderarent. Hac adhibita diligentia ex castris sibi legiones alias occurrere et eas quas secum duxerat in vicem requiescere atque in castra reverti iussit, eodemque die Larisam pervenit.

NOTE: *passis palmis* means "with outstretched hands"; *quid sui* means "any of their property"; *adhibita* from *adhibere* meaning "to employ" or "to use."

THE JUNIOR-COLLEGE CURRICULUM OF THE FUTURE

It is too early to make predictions concerning the exact nature, organization, and content of the curriculum of the junior college of the future. The whole movement is still so new that we have had little experience with it and have, therefore, made few investigational excursions into th curriculum problems involved. Now that we have the units in operation, it should be possible to begin to carry on experimental studies that will afford a better basis both of practice and of prediction. Projects similar to those being carried on in the Laboratory Schools in the School of Education of the University of Chicago; in Stephens College, in Missouri, where the effort is made to set up a junior-college curriculum with the present third high-school year as the first college year; and in the Pasadena High School and Junior College must be extended to other institutions.

At the same time it seems possible, even in these early stages of the movement, to descry the larger forces that will determine the general outlines of the development. It seems certain that we shall need in time to forsake the mere reproduction in the junior college of the courses and curriculums now being given in the first two years of colleges and universities. Doubtless junior colleges will continue to afford opportunities to round out general education and to pursue preprofessional curriculums. The scope of their functions will, however, extend beyond this relatively restricted service. Junior colleges will increasingly serve better, just as the high schools below are tending to do, the needs of a much larger proportion of youth than merely those who are to proceed to the higher levels of training.—From "The Junior College Curriculum" by Leonard V. Koos in *The School Review.*

BOOK NOTES AND REVIEWS

OUR SURROUNDINGS. AN ELEMENTARY GENERAL SCIENCE. By Arthur G. Clement, Morton C. Collister and Ernest L. Thurston. 1928. Iroquois Publishing Co., Syracuse, N. Y. XII and 628 pp. (including glossary and index).

A very complete and informing book, attractively prepared and with strongly environmental viewpoint as befits an introductory science text. The illustrations seem particularly well chosen. Although fuller treatment than usual is given of the detailed applications of science to everyday life, the subject matter is nevertheless well organized and has continuity. Special effort is made to awaken interest through a series of excellently written paragraphs preceding each new topic. The style of the text is simple and direct, with so much in it that touches common experience that the danger of a pupil's finding himself lost for lack of apperceptive background is minimized.

In the relatively simple experiments, which are incorporated in the text, there is less than usual of the inductive method. The authors seem to take the view that beginners, in order not to waste time, should be told what to look for, what they will find, and the reasons why; the experiment thus is used more to confirm statements given than to lead the pupil through his own observations to the discovery of underlying principles. In the latter parts of the book more individual observation seems to be called for, but relatively seldom is the pupil asked to generalize. On the other hand, through frequent sets of "Fact and Thought Questions," in addition to memorizing, application of given principles to particular situations is required, and in a variety of forms.

Following these questions are brief lists of projects, mainly involving construction and observation. These might possibly be improved by putting more of them in the form of definite questions. In order to correlate the class work still more with environment, suggestions for outdoor observation are given at the close of each chapter. Concluding chapters on Science and Progress and on Famous Scientists serve fittingly to summarize and round out the volume.

An unusually complete glossary and index are given, the former occupying thirty pages. A novel use is made of the inside of the covers of the book to show in pictorial form (1) the contrast of conditions at the dawn of science with those of today, (2) the far-reaching effects upon modern life of the work of certain men who gave their lives to science.

C. E. P.

CHARTS FOR CIVICS, GEOGRAPHY, ARITHMETIC AND GENERAL SCIENCE. By Fay Campbell. Wheeling Publishing Company, Chicago. 1928.

This, in the form of a paper-covered notebook to be placed in the hands of the pupil, presents very clearly several simple methods of graphical representation. It includes directions, illustrations and exercises, together with the necessary blank and cross-ruled pages for work.

In addition to the problems, which lead to a better understanding of making and interpreting graphs, and to a fuller appreciation of their value, the book affords exercise in certain valuable skills involving coördination of eye and

hand, and emphasizes neatness and accuracy as means of compelling attention.

To become familiar with graphical representation as here given should take but a brief period. It is doubtful whether teachers of social, physical or biological science will feel that time can be given to develop the mastery of this working tool except so far as it applies to their own restricted fields, incidentally. But since number comparison is usually involved, a general treatment of it might well form a small unit in a seventh or eighth grade mathematics course.

C. E. P.

TECHNIQUES USED TO DEVELOP A COURSE OF STUDY IN SCIENCE FOR THE HORACE MANN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL. By Gerald S. Craig. Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 276. 1927. 73 pp.

Failing to find, from a study of the outlines of courses given in many schools, any consensus of opinion as to content, goals, and methods of elementary school science, Dr. Craig has undertaken a systematic study in order to determine from reliable data how such a course may be organized with respect to all these qualities. The technique of the work is given in this dissertation; the outlines of the resulting course are published separately.

Most nature study courses, by reason of the assumption that children are unable to interpret meanings and to understand principles, have resolved themselves into little more than disjointed object-lessons, centering round observation and identification, and not always considering those things most necessary to the environmental adjustment of children. Dr. Craig takes issue with this assumption, on the ground that children are constantly interpreting what they observe out of school, and expresses his faith in the possibility of presenting an organized elementary school science course that will lead to progressive understanding through the grades.

Taking as his major question, What is the function of elementary school science? he determines upon three criteria for use in selecting objectives, corresponding to three great values science has had for mankind.

1. Man's thinking and acting have been greatly influenced by a knowledge of certain scientific conceptions, e.g. the earth is a sphere; nature's laws are invariable; space is vast; man's conception of truth changes; all species have come from simple forms of life.

2. The health, safety, and economy of the individual and the community have been better established through interpretation of certain natural phenomena.

3. Science helps explain certain natural phenomena that are so common that children cannot but observe and wonder about them.

A tentative list of specific objectives was then sought, to be measured by these three criteria. By "specific objective" is meant a statement of a goal that is definite enough to suggest the instructional materials and means of attaining it. The sources included Nature Study Review, outlines of courses collected by the Bureau of Curriculum Research of the College, professional literature, and authoritative scientific treatises. The list thus obtained was submitted to twenty instructors and professors of science and education for comment and check upon its completeness.

Three separate studies were then made to evaluate these objectives.

1. The list was submitted to 188 intelligent laymen, each of whom was asked to rate each item according to the importance with which it had affected his personal thought and actions. The ratings thus returned were scored, and objectives listed in the order of their importance.

2. A tabulated analysis was made of 1958 questions asked by children concerning science matters, and the objectives evaluated according to the frequency with which they would be needed in the answers. For further help this was kept by grade and by sex. A tabulation was also made of the nouns occurring in the questions, these indicating the topics upon which questions were asked.

3. From scientific source books was obtained a list of 770 statements of key-meanings, against which the list of objectives was checked, after translating the statements into the simpler language of children.

On the basis of these studies the material of the course was chosen and the objectives determined. The specific objectives, involving concrete details which determine teaching content and method of approach, were grouped around larger, or major objectives, statements of wider generalizations. The more important of these major objectives were assigned for treatment through certain specific problems in all the grades; others were assigned to only one or two grades. Children's questions served in some degree to indicate proper grade placement. On the side of course organization, including order, frequency and grade placement of subject-matter, and continuity of objectives, the author feels that much study still is needed.

In thus attacking the problem of elementary school science by methods applying at least a measure of quantitative determination Dr. Craig has performed a notable work, and outlined the path leading to a continuance of research in this important field.—C. E. P.

ADVANCED BIOLOGY. By C. A. King, F. I. Martin, and M. M. McCree. Globe Book Co., N. Y. 1928. 212 pp., including specimen examinations.

This little volume is prepared for use in such secondary schools as offer an advanced course in biology. It is in no sense a college text. "The inspiration for writing the book came from the fact that the authors were unable to find a textbook . . . free from technicalities and yet sufficiently informative on most topics required in the syllabus for advanced biology." To this informative point of view the book keeps very closely, giving much that is worth knowing beyond the content of the average elementary course, in a succinct, well-organized fashion that strongly suggests a set of excellent lecture notes. The illustrations, well chosen and designed, are all of the line-drawing type.

As might be expected, the chapters are brief, the order is logical, and the vocabulary presupposes some familiarity with the science. The chief topics considered are Cells, Reproduction and Heredity, Life Processes, Microorganisms, and Human Welfare. The thought centers largely round the biology of man.

This book will do little to awaken interest in biology; the authors assume that this interest has already been developed. Neither will it contribute greatly toward developing habits and skills of science study. The exercises at the close of each chapter are chiefly designed to test the student's understanding and

retention of the ideas of the text as written. But it does offer in compact, clear, and simple form much information of value to any biology student seeking greater detail than is usually given in the introductory high school course, and yet unprepared to dig this material out from among the technicalities of the average college text. To this degree it helps broaden his understanding of life.—C. E. P.

SCIENCE OF ANIMAL LIFE. By William M. Barrows. In New-World Science Series, edited by John W. Ritchie. Cloth. X + 390 pages. Illustrated. Price $1.76. Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Company.

Science of Animal Life is general animal biology in terms of modern knowledge. It deals with big ideas. The author has selected a line of related facts for a satisfactory brief course built around a limited number of principles, wide in their applications. There is purpose to the book, which will leave the student with a definite impression and a new point of view.

The author's primary interest is man. He deals with those facts and principles which will give the student a background for a broad and intelligent understanding of human beings and human society. He is concerned not merely with immediate utilitarian applications of biology, but also with the far-reaching relationships of the science to the great affairs of society.

In this book there is adequate treatment of the new fields of biology. A sufficient amount of the old morphology and description has been included, but emphasis is upon genetics, animal behavior, and ecology-subjects of widest interest and of certain influence on modern social thought.

In teaching method the book follows a sane, practical, middle course. It does not include endless unrelated facts. There are sufficient facts with which the student can work, but the facts are given a meaning so that the learner will know the why and wherefore. The book should be interesting to all students. Practically every one is interested in living animals and most of the work is with living material. Moreover, the author writes entertainingly and he has illustrated his book in an attractive way.

Science of Animal Life will furnish a good half year course in zoology either alone or as the animal part of an effective year course in biology.

FRENCH TOPICAL EXERCISE PAD. By B. Simon. Globe Book Co., New York. Price .40.

I quote from the preface.

"This topical exercise pad is not a grammar, composition book, idiom drill book, or the usual verb pad where each sheet stresses the peculiarities of the verb only. It aims to emphasize the most fundamental facts of elementary French grammar by a tabular arrangement which affords an unusual amount of drill on a given topic. This pad may, therefore, be used to advantage by those who have had at least an elementary contact with the language."

L'Europe en Zigzag. By W. H. Grosjean. Thomas Nelson and Sons, New York. Pp. 175. Price $1.24.

This book "differs entirely from those readers which deal with one country only, sometimes with one city, and which therefore, become tiresome to the students and the instructor," says the author. It is indeed an excellent idea. The account of Stanley Smith's travels is unusually interesting and especially so since it introduces the student to such a diversity of life and customs in Europe. On this trip Stanley goes through France, Belgium, Holland, England Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Germany, Latvia, Esthonia, Russia, Turkey, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Switzerland, Spain. Possibly other countries which I have missed. In each country he stops at the most important places of interest and gives us a good idea of the life and manners of the inhabitants. The illustrations are interesting, being reproduced from good photographs. One might wish for better cuts, however. They are not as clear-cut as they ought to be.

French Verb Book. By W. H. Grosjean. Thomas Nelson and Sons, New York. Pp. 176. Price $1.24.

A good verb drill book.

A First Book of Poetry. By R. L. Graeme Ritchie. Thomas Nelson and Sons. New York. Introduction ix-xxi. Pp. 23-167. Price $1.00.

The introduction gives some information about French versification. The poems are generally rather well chosen. There are a few of the best known songs, with the music. I question the value of the illustrations.

It seems to me that beginners or even pupils of the second year in high schools will have difficulty in really "getting" the Fables of Lafontaine. If the title were not "First Book of Poetry" my comment might be superfluous. The word "First" gives the impression that it is intended for use early in the course.

Colomba, Prosper Mérimée. By Edward Manley. Benjamin H. Sanborn and Company, 1927. Preface iii-iv. Introduction v-ix. Pp. 180. Notes pp. 181-227, Review Exercises pp. 228-240, Vocabulary 263-304.

This is one of the best of the many editions of this popular text that I have seen. The notes are above the average for this type of text. The illustrations give an excellent idea of Corsica and the Corsicans, being reproduced from photographs. These are better than the usual illustrations in high school texts.

Le Curé De Tours—Balzac—Juanita Helm Floyd. Benj. H. Sanborn & Co., 1927. Introduction, pages vii-xxi, pp. 5-130. Notes pp. 133-155. Exercises 157-176. Vocabulary 179-234.

This text has been very carefully edited by Dr. Floyd. The introduction contains a very satisfactory brief biography of Balzac and other material of interest to the teacher and student. The notes are very carefully done. The

Exercises are for drill in conversation, verbs, and translation of English sentences into French. There are some fairly interesting reproductions of wood cuts by M. Etienne Gaudet.

COURS PRACTIQUE DE FRANÇAIS POUR COMMENÇANTS. By E. B. De Sauzé. The John C. Winston Co., Philadelphia. Revised, 1927. $1.60.

This is one of the best Direct Method Grammars that has come to my notice. The grammar is taught entirely in French. There are a few sentences in each lesson for translation into French. There is much reading matter interspersed with the grammar. Several of the best known songs are given and short poems are numerous. There are maps of France and Paris. Of course there are the usual photographs of some of the best known monuments.

FUNDAMENTALS OF SPANISH. Imbert and Piñol. Silver, Burdett, and Co., 1928.

An attractively made book. The vocabularies seem to be rather long. Exercises and drill and teaching devices numerous. Some good photographs and some drawings much less attractive.

EXERCISE BOOK IN FRENCH. Harvey J. Swan and André C. Fontaine. Globe Book Co., 1928. Price $1.00. Pp. 117 English-French. Vocabulary pp. 119-152.

In the preface we read: "The purpose of this is to furnish drill in the fundamental principles of grammar and in irregular verbs." There seems to be but little of the "fundamental principles of grammar." The book is largely given over to drill in irregular verbs. As a reference rather than a text, I should judge it would be very good. I doubt that any but advanced students could assimilate all that there is in these lessons.

LA SEMEUSE. By Benjamin M. Woodbridge. University of Chicago Press. $1.50. Pp. 160. Vocabulary pp. 161-182.

This is last of the books of "The University of Chicago Junior College Series"—Edited by Professor Bond.

La Semeuse is an unusually interesting collection of selections from representative French authors from writers of the last century and a half. As the Editor says in the preface, "It is the logical conclusion of a course that visualizes the ability to read French as a major aim."

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